



1 **A climatological interpretation of precipitation-based $\delta^{18}\text{O}$**

2 **across Siberia and Central Asia**

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25 Abstract

26 Siberia and Central Asia are located at mid- to high latitudes and encompass a
27 large landlocked area of the Eurasian continent containing vast tracts of permafrost
28 (seasonal permafrost and permafrost), which is extremely sensitive to global climate
29 change. However, previous research has scarcely investigated the changes in the
30 paleoclimate in this region. Similarly, the temporal and spatial distributions of the stable
31 isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$) of precipitation and its corresponding influencing factors
32 remain largely unknown. Therefore, we used data from 15 Global Network of Isotopes
33 in Precipitation (GNIP) stations to investigate the relationships between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the
34 local temperature and precipitation considering changes in atmospheric circulation.
35 Analyses conducted on the monthly, seasonal and annual timescales led to three main
36 conclusions. **(1)** At the monthly timescale, the variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ exhibited a significant
37 positive correlation with the monthly mean temperature ($p < 0.01$). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ excursion
38 was positive in summer as the temperature increased and negative in winter as the
39 temperature decreased. Note that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were also affected by the monthly
40 precipitation, Eurasian zonal circulation index (EZCI), and water vapor source (e.g.,
41 polar air masses and local evaporative water vapor). **(2)** At the annual scale, the
42 weighted average value of the precipitation-based $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$) exhibited a
43 “temperature effect” over $60^\circ\text{N} - 70^\circ\text{N}$. However, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ may have been dominated
44 by multiple factors from 40°N to 60°N (e.g., the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and
45 water vapor source changes). **(3)** At the annual timescale, the variability of the path of
46 the westerly caused by changes in the NAO explained the variations in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and

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47 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$.

48 Based on the limited observational data in this region, we found that $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ is
49 correlated with the local temperature at the monthly and seasonal timescales. However,
50 at the annual timescale, in addition to the temperature effect, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ reflects the
51 variability of the water vapor source that is dominated by the EZCI and NAO. Therefore,
52 it is possible to reconstruct the histories of past atmospheric circulations and water
53 vapor sources in this region via geologic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ proxies, e.g., speleothems records.

54 **Keywords:** Siberia and Central Asia, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$, Eurasian Zonal Circulation, North Atlantic
55 Oscillation, Moisture sources

56 **1. Introduction**

57 The stable oxygen isotopic compositions ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) of ice cores, tree rings, ocean
58 sediments and cave speleothems have been widely used as proxies for paleoclimatic
59 change; however, the meaning of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ varies among different paleo-archives and hence
60 remains controversial (Wang et al., 2001). Therefore, monitoring the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of modern
61 atmospheric precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$) can lead to a better understanding of the climatic
62 significance of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in various paleo-archives.

63 The Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) became operational in
64 1961 when it was established by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and
65 the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA); through the GNIP, stable hydrogen
66 and oxygen isotopic compositions of precipitation (δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$) were first observed,



67 thereby providing numerous isotope data sets for research on global and local
68 atmospheric circulation (Rozanski et al., 1993). Subsequent related studies have
69 indicated that the factors influencing the changes in δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$ exhibit distinct
70 characteristics at different latitudes, e.g., the variations in $\delta^{18}O_P$ over mid- and high-
71 latitude regions are dominated by the temperature, while those at low latitudes are
72 dominated by precipitation (Dansgaard, 1964; Rozanski et al., 1992; Hoffmann and
73 Heimann, 1997; Aragufis-Aragufis et al., 1998; Yamanaka et al., 2007; Tang et al.,
74 2015). In addition, changes in the source of water vapor and in the atmospheric
75 circulation pattern can also result in variations in δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$ (Cruz Jr et al., 2005;
76 Krklec et al., 2018).

77 Siberian permafrost constitutes one of the most important forms of tundra in the
78 world and acts as an indicator of temperature change; accordingly, the greenhouse gases
79 released through the melting of permafrost have important impacts on global climate
80 change and carbon cycle processes (Dobinski, 2011; Schuur et al., 2015; Raudina et al.,
81 2018). However, modern meteorological monitoring networks and paleoclimatic
82 research are relatively scarce in Siberia and northern Central Asia in comparison with
83 other regions worldwide. Consequently, the findings of previous research on the stable
84 isotopes of precipitation in this region can be summarized as follows. (1) The stable
85 isotopes of meteoric precipitation are controlled by the local temperature with a distinct
86 “temperature effect” (Kurita et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2016). (2) The main source of
87 moisture in Eurasia originates from the Atlantic Ocean (Aizen et al., 1996; Numaguti,
88 1999). While, throughout the summer season, the supply of circulating water is an



89 important contribution. Additionally, isotopic changes in circulating water also affect
 90 the relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ and temperature (Kurita et al., 2004; Aizen et al., 2005;
 91 Henderson et al., 2006; Butzin et al., 2014; Wolff et al., 2016). (3) The zonal index (ZI)
 92 represents the intensity of the mid-latitude westerly wind, a common circulation pattern
 93 that leads to changes in the transport of water vapor over Siberia and central Asia.
 94 Moreover, the variation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ is positively correlated with the frequency of the
 95 westerly wind (Kurita, 2003; Li and Wang, 2003; Aizen et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2016).
 96 (4) The climate of western Siberia displays strong interannual variations that are
 97 dominated by the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) during the winter period (Peng and
 98 Mysak, 1993; Zhao et al., 2011; Casado et al., 2013; Butzin et al., 2014; Wolff et al.,
 99 2016). The regional temperature also affects the decadal winter variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$, but
 100 the interannual summer variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ can be attributed to short-term regional scale
 101 processes, such as evaporation and convective precipitation (Casado et al., 2013; Butzin
 102 et al., 2014).

103 Therefore, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ distribution in Siberia may be controlled either by the
 104 temperature effect or by variations in the source of water vapor. Nevertheless, some
 105 scientific questions remain that are worthy of further study. Notably, how do the
 106 abovementioned factors affect the isotopic composition of local atmospheric
 107 precipitation at different timescales (e.g., monthly, seasonal and annual)? In addition,
 108 the NAO has an enormous influence on the climate patterns at mid- to high latitudes
 109 within the Northern Hemisphere (Hurrell et al., 2003; Casado et al., 2013). Notably,
 110 monitoring data, climate simulation results, and paleoclimate proxies from Europe



111 highlight a strong relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ and the North Atlantic Oscillation index
112 (NAOI) (Baldini et al., 2008; Field, 2010; Sidorova et al., 2010; Mischel et al., 2015;
113 Wassenburg et al., 2016). However, whether signals associated with the NAO can be
114 recorded in the Siberian $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ remains unknown; similarly, the influences of Atlantic
115 water vapor and Arctic Ocean water vapor on the regional precipitation are poorly
116 understood. Consequently, analyses of the abovementioned scientific problems will
117 provide more in-depth comprehension of the climatic and environmental significance
118 of the isotopic composition of atmospheric precipitation throughout the region.
119 Moreover, a thorough understanding of the physical mechanisms related to regional
120 changes in modern meteoric isotopes will provide a framework for reconstructing the
121 regional paleoclimate via geological records, such as speleothems and ice core records.

122 In this paper, we analyzed stable isotopic observation data pertaining to
123 atmospheric precipitation at 15 GNIP sites over Siberia and northern Central Asia
124 ($40^\circ\text{N} - 70^\circ\text{N}$, $50^\circ\text{E} - 120^\circ\text{E}$) (Fig. 1). By combining these data with observed
125 changes in the patterns of atmospheric circulation, we investigated the following
126 scientific issues: (1) the variations in the characteristics of atmospheric precipitation
127 isotopes in Siberia and their influencing factors at monthly, seasonal and annual
128 timescales; (2) the relationship between the isotopic compositions of precipitation and
129 atmospheric circulations in Siberia; and (3) the main factors associated with the stable
130 isotopic composition of atmospheric precipitation in this region and their climatic and
131 environmental significance. These topics were then analyzed and discussed to provide
132 reliable support for modern monitoring endeavors, thereby facilitating paleoclimatic



133 reconstruction efforts via regional $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ proxies.

134 **2. Study area**

135 The study region, which is located in the northern part of Eurasia, includes inland
 136 Siberia and the northern part of Central Asia ($40^\circ\text{N} - 70^\circ\text{N}$, $50^\circ\text{E} - 120^\circ\text{E}$) (Fig. 1).
 137 The region of interest herein is a typical mid- to high-latitude continental area extending
 138 from the Ural Mountains in the west to the Stanovoy Range in the east and from the
 139 Arctic Ocean in the north to a series of mountain ranges toward the south, namely, the
 140 mountains in northern Kazakhstan to the southwest, Urumqi in the south, and Qiqihar
 141 (northeastern China) to the southeast.

142 The moisture over Eurasia is transported by the westerly, and the water vapor flux
 143 decreases as the wind direction shifts from West Eurasia to East Eurasia (Aizen et al.,
 144 1996; Numaguti, 1999; Kurita et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2017). The elevations of the
 145 sites in the study region range from 53 to 1338 m a.s.l. (above sea level), the annual
 146 average temperature varies from -11.8 to 10.0°C , and the annual average precipitation
 147 reaches 230 – 706 mm (Table 1). In winter, the precipitation in this region originates
 148 from the ocean, whereas half of the precipitation in summer is sourced from the local
 149 evaporation of water vapor due to the high evaporation rate (Numaguti, 1999; Kurita et
 150 al., 2004; Butzin et al., 2014). In autumn and winter, the climatic conditions in this
 151 region are controlled mainly by the Siberian high-pressure system; the surface
 152 evaporation within the study area is relatively weak during these seasons due to the low
 153 temperature and high snow cover, resulting in a wide range of cold and dry conditions



154 throughout Siberia (Henderson et al., 2006).

155 **3. Data and methods**

156 The meteoric isotopic and meteorological data in this paper were derived from the
 157 GNIP. We used atmospheric stable isotopic observation data from 15 stations located
 158 in the study region for statistical analysis. Twelve of the stations (i.e., except for those
 159 in Ulaanbaatar, Wulumuqi, and Qiqihar) are located in Russia (Fig. 1; Table 1). We
 160 further collected synchronous data from 14 other sites in Eurasia outside the study area
 161 to support the discussion (Fig. 1). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ data were downloaded through the IAEA
 162 website (<https://nucleus.iaea.org/wiser/index.aspx/>). The monitoring period ranged
 163 from 1961 to 2015; within this period, the data for some years were missing. The NAOI
 164 data were downloaded from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)
 165 of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)
 166 (<http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/data/indices/>). The Eurasian zonal circulation index
 167 (EZCI) data were downloaded from the National Climate Center of the China
 168 Meteorological Administration (<http://cmdp.ncc-cma.net/cn/monitoring.htm>).

169 To identify the moisture transport paths and better interpret the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ variability at
 170 different sites, we determined the back trajectories of air parcels using the NCEP
 171 reanalysis data sets (<ftp://arlftp.arlhq.noaa.gov/pub/archives/reanalysis>) and the Hybrid
 172 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPPLIT) model, which is available
 173 from the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>

174 We compared the results for the identified moisture sources at four different



175 elevations, namely, 500, 1000, 1500 and 2000 m a.g.l. (above ground level), for four
 176 sites: Bagdarin, Qiqihar, Ulaanbaatar and Wulumuqi. Most of the moisture in the
 177 atmosphere is believed to reside up to 2000 m a.g.l. (Zhang, 2009; Bershaw et al., 2012;
 178 Yu et al., 2016; Krklec et al., 2018); therefore, no higher levels were considered. The
 179 results revealed little variation in the sources of moisture at different elevations
 180 (Appendix Fig. 1 - 3) (Krklec and Domínguez-Villar, 2014). Hence, the air mass history
 181 was calculated for a single elevation of 1000 m a.g.l. during the previous 240-h (10-
 182 day) period, which is considered the average residence time of water vapor in the
 183 atmosphere (Numaguti, 1999; Krklec and Domínguez-Villar, 2014; Krklec et al., 2018).

184 4. Results

185 4.1 Seasonal variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ and *d-excess*

186 Six monitoring sites that recorded over two years of continuous $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ data,
 187 namely, Amderma, Pechora, Perm, Salekhard, Qiqihar and Wulumuqi, were selected to
 188 analyze the seasonal variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$. The average monthly temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$
 189 exhibited synchronous seasonal variations; specifically, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ displayed positive
 190 excursions in summer and negative excursions in winter, while the maximum average
 191 monthly temperature appeared in July, and the minimum average monthly temperature
 192 was observed in January. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ extrema followed a similar trend: the maximum
 193 values occurred in July, while the minimum values occurred between December and
 194 February (Fig. 2).

195 An analysis of the seasonal changes in the deuterium excess (*d-excess*) at these six



196 monitoring sites indicated that *d-excess* at Wulumuqi displayed obvious seasonal
 197 variations. In contrast, no obvious seasonal changes were observed for *d-excess* either
 198 at Qiqihar in East Asia or at Amderma, Pechora, Perm, or Salekhard in northern Siberia
 199 (Fig. 3).

200 **4.2 Relationship between δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$**

201 Craig (1961) used the relationship between δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$ to establish the first
 202 global meteoric water line (GMWL): $\delta D = 8.0 \delta^{18}O + 10.0$ (Craig, 1961); in the GMWL,
 203 the slope reflects the fractionation or ratio between δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$, while the intercept
 204 indicates the extent to which δD deviates from equilibrium (Craig, 1961). As shown in
 205 Fig. 4, a correlation analysis was performed on the relationship between δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$
 206 with data from the 15 stations in Siberia and Central Asia to obtain the local meteoric
 207 water line (LMWL): $\delta D = 7.8 \delta^{18}O + 5.0$ ($R = 0.98$). We used the δD and $\delta^{18}O_P$ data
 208 from monthly precipitation observations collected at every GNIP site to obtain the
 209 LMWL equations given in Table 2.

210 The LMWL slopes were generally lower than the GMWL slope at all 15 stations
 211 (except for Novosibirsk, Irkutsk, Enisejsk and Perm) (Table 2). As a result of
 212 evaporation during the precipitation period in the inland region, the enrichment of $\delta^{18}O_P$
 213 led to equations for atmospheric precipitation with a lower slope at most monitoring
 214 sites (Dansgaard, 1964; Stewart, 1975; Peng et al., 2005; Yamanaka et al., 2007; Pang
 215 et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2015). The differences in the LMWL among the various sites
 216 in the study region may be attributed to differences in source of water vapor. However,



the observed continental characteristics generally exhibited low slope and low intercept values, as presented in Table 2 (Stewart, 1975; Peng et al., 2005; Peng et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2015).

4.3 Relationship between temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$

4.3.1. Relationship between the monthly average temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$

The correlation coefficients between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and monthly average temperature are summarized in Table 3 for 13 stations that recorded at least one full year of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ data during the observation period. A significant positive correlation was found between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly average temperature (Table 3) with an obvious temperature effect (Dansgaard, 1964).

According to the patterns of changes in the multiyear temperature and precipitation records, a year is divided into four seasons: spring (March–April–May, MAM), summer (June–July–August, JJA), autumn (September–October–November, SON), and winter (December–January–February of the following year, DJF) (Kurita et al., 2004). We analyzed the correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly average temperature in every season at every site that recorded $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ data for at least two years (Table 3). Based on the results, the correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly average temperature in spring and autumn is more significant than that in winter and summer, thereby demonstrating the dominant effect of temperature in the former (Table 3). The correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly average temperature was weakest in summer, demonstrating that



the effect of temperature on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ is relatively imperceptible during this season. This result may be attributed to the strong surface water evaporation in summer, during which more than 80% of all precipitation in Eurasia originates from surface evaporation; notably, a large portion of water evaporated from the surface comes from winter precipitation, which has smaller $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values than does summer precipitation, leading to the low correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and temperature in the summer season (Numaguti, 1999; Kurita et al., 2004; Henderson et al., 2006).

In addition, Kurita et al. (2003) noted that the isotope composition of meteoric precipitation in eastern Siberia is controlled by Rayleigh fractionation in spring and by water vapor transported by the westerly with relatively high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values in summer; this water vapor may also be mixed with snowmelt water characterized by a low $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ value. Therefore, the temperature effect of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ is not evident because of the influence of changes in the source of water vapor in summer (Kurita, 2003; Blyakharchuk et al., 2007).

4.3.2. The relationship between the annual average temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$

A correlation analysis was conducted between the weighted mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in annual precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$) and the annual average temperature at 20 stations that recorded over 5 years of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ data. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ values at Espoo, Krakow, Kuopio and Salekhard exhibited a significant positive correlation ($p < 0.05$) with the average annual temperature; however, either no significant positive correlation or a weak negative



correlation was observed at the other stations (Table 4).

The stations north of 60 °N exhibited a positive correlation between the annual average temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$; in contrast, the correlation coefficient (R) was irregular at the sites south of 60 °N. Therefore, we propose that the distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ at high latitudes over Eurasia reflects the changes in the annual average temperature, while the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ distribution in the range of 40 °N – 60 °N does not follow temperature trend at the interannual scale. For example, the correlation coefficient (R) between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ and the annual average temperature at Qiqihar was negative, which is attributed to the proximity of the site to the Pacific Ocean and the effect of the Asian summer monsoon (Li et al., 2012b). Moreover, Wulumuqi displayed a negative correlation coefficient (R) between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ and the annual average temperature due to the north-south swinging of the westerly wind at the interannual scale (Liu et al., 2015). Therefore, the annual mean temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ exhibited a temperature effect at high latitudes (60 °N – 70 °N). However, at an annual scale, the regions located within 40 °N – 60 °N may be situated in a transition zone of the temperature effect in addition to a “rainfall effect” and a “circulation effect”. Therefore, different monitoring sites are characterized by different controlling factors, resulting in varying relationships between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the annual average temperature (Rozanski et al., 1992; Johnson and Ingram, 2004; Krklec and Domínguez-Villar, 2014; Wang et al., 2017; Li, 2018; Zhang and Li, 2018).

4.4. Relationship between precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$

We analyzed the correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly precipitation at 13



280 sites that recorded more than one year of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ data (12 months/year). A significant
281 positive correlation was observed between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the monthly precipitation at most
282 sites (Table 5); furthermore, the correlation coefficient between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the monthly
283 precipitation (R_P) at every station (Table 5) was less than that between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the
284 monthly average temperature (R_T) (Table 3). Because $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ is controlled by the
285 temperature distribution in the study region at the monthly timescale (Table 3), a
286 significant correlation exists between the monthly average temperature and monthly
287 precipitation at each monitoring site (Appendix Table 1), resulting in a positive
288 correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the monthly precipitation (Table 5). At the annual
289 timescale, the positive correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the monthly precipitation is
290 contrary to the general rainfall effect. In every season, the relationship between the
291 monthly precipitation and monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ displays a negative correlation, which seems
292 to be consistent with the rainfall effect (Dansgaard, 1964), although this negative
293 correlation is not very significant (Table 5).

294 Most of the monitoring stations (14 out of 20) that recorded over 5 years of data
295 exhibited a nonsignificant negative relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ and the annual
296 precipitation amount (Table 4). This lack of significance may be due to the limited
297 amount of observation data. Nevertheless, based on the limited observational data
298 available, we can make a preliminary judgment inasmuch that the precipitation amount
299 at the interannual scale may not principally influence the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ values of the mid- to
300 high-latitude regions of Eurasia.

301 **5. Discussion**



302 5.1. *d-excess* was used to represent a source of water vapor

303 Diagnosing nonequilibrium fractionation requires an analysis of *d-excess*
 304 (measured in ‰), which is defined as $d\text{-excess} = \delta D - 8\delta^{18}O$ (Dansgaard, 1964). Related
 305 studies have shown that *d-excess* is influenced primarily by the relative humidity of the
 306 water vapor source when an air mass forms. When the relative humidity of the water
 307 vapor source is low, the corresponding *d-excess* value is high, and vice versa. Based on
 308 these findings, *d-excess* reflects the thermal conditions and the water vapor balance
 309 when an air mass forms, and thus, *d-excess* has been widely used to track the source of
 310 precipitation (Pfahl and Wernli, 2008; Pfahl and Sodemann, 2014; Krklec et al., 2018).

311 Six observation sites that recorded $\delta^{18}O_p$ data continuously for at least two years,
 312 namely, Amderma, Pechora, Perm, Salekhard, Qiqihar, Wulumuqi, were selected to
 313 analyze the seasonal variations in *d-excess* in atmospheric precipitation (Fig. 3).
 314 Specifically, *d-excess* exhibits obvious seasonal variations at Wulumuqi, where the
 315 winter *d-excess* distribution is higher than average, and the summer (JJA) *d-excess*
 316 distribution is lower than average. In contrast, the regional *d-excess* distribution is lower
 317 in summer as a result of the low temperature and high humidity associated with Atlantic
 318 moisture from the northwest (Fig. 5C). Meanwhile, in winter (DJF), warm and dry
 319 water vapor originating from the southwestern Black Sea, Caspian Sea and Aral Sea
 320 lead to an increase in *d-excess* (Fig. 5) (Tian et al., 2007; Li et al., 2012a). Aizen et al.
 321 (2005) investigated ice core and snowfall records from the Altai region (northern
 322 Wulumuqi (49°N – 50°N, 86°E – 88°E)) and found two distinct moisture sources:
 323 oceanic sources from the Atlantic Ocean and the Arctic Ocean with *d-excess* < 12‰



324 and an inland evaporative mass from the Aral Sea and the Caspian Sea with *d-excess* >
 325 12‰. Based on the above analysis, the seasonal variation in *d-excess* in the precipitation
 326 over Wulumuqi is controlled by different moisture sources (Fig. 5).

327 There are no significant seasonal variations in the *d-excess* of the precipitation
 328 over East Asia (Qiqihar) and Northwest Siberia (Amderma, Pechora, Perm and
 329 Salekhard) (Fig. 3A - 3E). This finding may be attributed to the moisture transport
 330 mechanisms of different regions. For example, because they are located farther to the
 331 north, Amderma, Pechora, Perm, and Salekhard are more susceptible to moisture
 332 originating from the Arctic Ocean (Tian et al., 2007). Additionally, Qiqihar is
 333 influenced by moisture from the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans transported by westerly
 334 winds, and the local precipitation is further affected by moisture from the Pacific Ocean
 335 transported by the East Asian summer monsoon (Li et al., 2012b).

336 The *d-excess* value reflects not only the characteristics of the water vapor source
 337 temperature, relative humidity, and evaporation strength but also the secondary
 338 evaporation of raindrops during their descent from the clouds to the ground (Peng et al.,
 339 2005; Pfahl and Sodemann, 2014; Chen et al., 2015). In the annual precipitation at
 340 Wulumuqi, the *d-excess* values vary between -16.7‰ and 54.8‰ with an average value
 341 of 13.3‰, which is higher than the global *d-excess* average (approximately 10‰). The
 342 *d-excess* value obtained in the precipitation over Wulumuqi is similar to that obtained
 343 over the Mediterranean region, where a secondary evaporation effect is produced below
 344 the clouds, reflecting the local dry climate conditions (Peng et al., 2005; Hou et al.,
 345 2011; Wang et al., 2016).



346 **5.2. Relationship between the EZCI and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$**

347 The EZCI was used to represent the variation in the intensity of the westerly. When
 348 the zonal circulation became strengthened (weakened) during the winter season, the
 349 westerly became strengthened (weakened) as the intensity of the warm oceanic air mass
 350 from the Atlantic increased (decreased) and the intensity of the cold continental air mass
 351 decreased (increased), resulting in rising (falling) winter temperatures over Europe and
 352 northern Asia. In contrast, when the zonal circulation became strengthened (weakened)
 353 during the summer period, the westerly winds became strengthened (weakened), the
 354 intensity of the cool air mass from the Atlantic Ocean increased (decreased), and the
 355 intensity of the warm air mass from the continent decreased (increased), resulting in a
 356 decrease (increase) in the summer temperatures over Europe and northern Asia (Li and
 357 Wang, 2003; Hoy et al., 2012; Nowosad, 2017). Our results show that the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 358 values at most stations (9 out of 13) exhibit a significant negative correlation with the
 359 EZCI (Table 6). At the seasonal timescale, at most sites, the two variables exhibit a
 360 positive correlation in winter and a negative correlation in spring and autumn. In
 361 summer, only the Pechora site displays a significant negative correlation between the
 362 EZCI and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ (Table 5).

363 At the annual and seasonal timescales, the different correlations between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 364 and the EZCI are the result of seasonal variations in the temperature and zonal wind.
 365 At the annual timescale, the EZCI displays seasonal variations that are opposite to those
 366 of the temperature (the EZCI is high in winter and low in summer) (Appendix Fig. 4);
 367 additionally, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the monthly average temperature are positively correlated at the



annual timescale (Table 3), resulting in a significant negative correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the EZCI. In winter, when the zonal circulation is stronger (weaker), the westerly wind becomes strengthened (weakened), and the temperatures over Europe and northern Asia increase (decrease); therefore, there is a positive correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the EZCI in winter. In contrast, in spring and autumn, a negative correlation is found between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the EZCI due to the increase (decrease) in the intensity of the westerly wind, and this correlation leads to a decrease (increase) in the temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ value (Hoy et al., 2012). In summer, as the EZCI weakens (Appendix Fig. 4), the Arctic vortex extends toward the south (Hoy et al., 2012), and the mixing of water vapor from the Arctic and Pacific Oceans with inland local evaporative water influences the relationship among the EZCI, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$, and temperature; therefore, the correlation coefficient (R) between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and the EZCI varies at each site. For example, in July 1996 and July 1998, the temperatures at Bagdadin were similar (16.9 and 16.8 °C, respectively), whereas the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were quite different (-10.3 and -15.8 (‰, V-SMOW), respectively). This difference can be attributed to the increase in moisture originating from the Pacific Ocean in July 1996, leading to a positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ value (Fig. 6A, 6B). Furthermore, the temperature at Qiqihar was 6.2 °C in April 1990 and April 1991; the increase in water vapor from the Arctic Ocean led a lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ value in April 1990 (-18.0 (‰, V-SMOW)) than in April 1991 (-16.2 (‰, V-SMOW)) (Fig. 6C, 6D). In both July 1994 and August 2000, the temperature at Ulaanbaatar was 17.1 °C, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were -4.0 and -10.4 (‰, V-SMOW), respectively (Fig. 6E, 6F), and the EZCI values were 6.1 and 10.9, respectively. In July 1994, the EZCI decreased as the



390 westerly wind weakened, in which inland evaporation played a leading role (Fig. 6E).
391 Moreover, warm water vapor from South China also affected the precipitation in the
392 region and led to the enrichment of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ in July 1994 (Fig. 6E). Conversely, in 2000,
393 almost all water vapor originated from high-latitude areas (the high latitudes of the
394 North Atlantic and near the Ural Mountains), and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were low (Fig. 6F).
395 Finally, in July and August 2001, the temperature at Wulumuqi was 23.4 °C, and the
396 EZCI (6.8) in July was lower than that in August (10.3). The polar air mass invaded
397 Wulumuqi in July, resulting in a lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ value (-7.4 (‰, V-SMOW)) than that in
398 August (-3.9 (‰, V-SMOW)) (Fig. 6G, 6H).

399 The above results suggest that changes in the moisture sources and their relative
400 proportions caused by variations in zonal circulation explain not only the complex
401 correlation between the EZCI and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ in summer but also why the temperature effect
402 in summer is less obvious than that in spring and autumn.

403 **5.3. Relationship between the NAO and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$**

404 From 1980 to 1983, the sites with continuous records, namely, Amderma,
405 Arkhangelsk, Kalinin, Pechora, Perm, Riga, and St. Petersburg, were selected to
406 analyze the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ trends at different sites during this period. With the exception of Riga,
407 negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ trends were found for all the other stations, contrary to the trends for the
408 NAO and EZCI (Fig. S5). We removed Riga and Amderma, which had missing data,
409 from the data set and arithmetically averaged and combined the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ time series from
410 Arkhangelsk, Kalinin, Pechora, Perm and St. Petersburg (Fig. 7A) into a single $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$



sequence (Fig. 7B). Additionally, the NAOI and EZCI were compared with the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ sequence (Fig. 7C, 7D). Evident fluctuations can be observed in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$, NAOI and EZCI curves, which exhibit opposing trends (Fig. 7B, 7C, 7D). Taking 1981 (NAOI: -0.21) and 1982 (NAOI: 0.43) as examples for comparison, when the NAO is negative (1981), the westerly wind shifts southward ($\sim 45^\circ\text{N} - 55^\circ\text{N}$), bringing warmer water vapor from the southwest to the northeast and resulting in higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ values (Fig. 8A). When the NAO is positive (1982), the westerly strengthens, migrates toward the north ($\sim 50^\circ\text{N} - 60^\circ\text{N}$) and generally moves in the zonal direction; therefore, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ values will be relatively small (Fig. 8B). The NAO influences the changes in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ by affecting the intensity and pathway of the westerly (Hurrell, 1995; Field, 2010; Langebroek et al., 2011). Therefore, we speculate that over mid- to high-latitude regions throughout Eurasia, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ is affected by both the NAO and the temperature. This joint influence is the main reason for the absence of a temperature effect in the variability of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ at the interannual time scale.

6. Conclusions

This paper selected 15 GNIP stations situated throughout Siberia and Central Asia for analysis in combination with the changes in atmospheric circulation patterns at mid- to high latitudes; the conclusions of this study are as follows.

(1) At the monthly and seasonal time scales, the summer $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values were high, and the winter $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values were small, thereby exhibiting a “temperature effect”. At the annual time scale, the average temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{w}$ exhibited a temperature effect



432 at high latitudes ($60^{\circ}\text{N} - 70^{\circ}\text{N}$), but a significant temperature effect was not observed
433 in regions over $40^{\circ}\text{N} - 60^{\circ}\text{N}$.

434 (2) The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were significantly positively correlated with the monthly
435 precipitation at the monthly time scale, which is contrary to the general “rainfall effect”.
436 The above phenomenon is attributed to the similar seasonal change between the
437 monthly average temperature and monthly precipitation in the study area. In
438 comparison, no significant correlation was observed between either $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ and
439 the local precipitation.

440 (3) The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were negatively correlated with the EZCI at the monthly time
441 scale. The zonal circulation results in changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ throughout Eurasia by affecting
442 the local temperature and water vapor source. The relationship among $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$, the
443 temperature and the EZCI varies seasonally and is influenced by changes in the source
444 of water vapor in summer.

445 (4) The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values in the study region and the NAOI exhibit opposing trends at
446 the interannual timescale. The NAO affects the source of water vapor transport by
447 changing the pathways of the westerly, leading to changes in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$.

448 In summary, the existing GNIP data compiled from meteoric isotope observations
449 in Siberia and Central Asia are insufficient, particularly because the data records are not
450 continuous. Based on these existing limited data, we speculate that the local
451 atmospheric precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ is dominated by temperature at the monthly and
452 seasonal timescales; at the interannual scale, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ variation is dominated by the



453 EZCI and NAO. Furthermore, there is no significant correlation between the annual
 454 average temperature or precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$. Therefore, reconstructing past
 455 atmospheric circulation patterns and changes in water vapor sources via $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ proxies
 456 (e.g., cave speleothems) in geologic archives within this region may be informative.

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 461 Li.

462 **Captions:**

463 **Fig. 1.** Locations of the GNIP stations in Siberia and Central Asia (red triangles) and
 464 Europe (purple triangles) used in this study

465 **Fig. 2.** (A) Seasonal variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and (B) the monthly average temperature
 466 recorded at the GNIP stations in Siberia and Central Asia. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values tend to be
 467 positive in summer and negative in winter, thereby exhibiting a "temperature effect".

468 Note: The sites that recorded $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ monitoring data for more than two years were
 469 selected, namely, Amderma, Pechora, Perm, Salekhard, Qiqihar, and Wulumuqi.

470 **Fig. 3.** Annual variations in *d-excess* at the GNIP stations in Siberia and Central Asia:
 471 (A) Amderma, (B) Pechora, (C) Perm, (D) Qiqihar, (E) Salekhard, and (F) Wulumuqi.
 472 The boxes represent the 25th–75th percentiles; the line through each box represents the



473 median; the whiskers indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles; and the points above and
 474 below the whiskers indicate the 95th and 5th percentiles. The *d-excess* pattern at
 475 Wulumuqi exhibited an obvious seasonal variation.

476 Note: The sites with $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ data for more than two years were selected, namely,
 477 Amderma, Pechora, Perm, Salekhard, Qiqihar, and Wulumuqi.

478 **Fig. 4.** LMWL (red line) based on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD values (red dots) of precipitation
 479 from 15 stations in Central Asia and Siberia. The GMWL (blue line; Craig, 1961) is
 480 plotted for comparison.

481 **Fig. 5.** Seasonal mean moisture flux based on the NCEP/NOAA reanalysis data sets
 482 (1981–2010) integrated from 850 hPa. **(A)** DJF: December–January–February, **(B)**
 483 MAM: March–April–May, **(C)** JJA: June–July–August, and **(D)** SON: September–
 484 October–November. The vector in the figure is the water vapor transport $q \cdot v$ (unit:
 485 $\text{kg}/(\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s})$). The blue transparent bands indicate the main path of moisture transport for
 486 Wulumuqi (red triangle). In the Wulumuqi area, the moisture source in summer (JJA)
 487 is located more toward the north (from 50°N to 60°N , Atlantic Ocean), and the
 488 moisture sources in other seasons are more toward the southwest (from the
 489 Mediterranean Sea, Black Sea, and Caspian Sea).

490 **Fig. 6.** The back trajectories presented for Bagdadin **(A)** and **(B)**, Qiqihar **(C)** and **(D)**,
 491 Ulaanbaatar **(E)** and **(F)**, and Wulumuqi **(E)** and **(F)** in different months. The bold black
 492 numbers in the figure are the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values (‰ , V-SMOW). The Hybrid Single-
 493 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPPLIT) model was used in the backward



494 tracking of air parcels for the above sites. The air mass history was calculated at 1000
 495 m a.g.l. (above ground level) over the previous 240 h. Each dot represents the location
 496 of the air parcel at 12-h intervals. The model is available from the NOAA Air Resources
 497 Laboratory at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>. Months with similar average
 498 monthly temperatures but with significantly different $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ values were selected to
 499 compare the water vapor source. The changes in the water vapor source have an
 500 important influence on the variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$, as can be observed.

501 **Fig. 7.** Time series (1980-1983) of (A) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ from Arkhangelsk (green dot), Kalinin
 502 (brown dot), Pechora (purple triangle), Perm (yellow triangle) and St. Petersburg (blue
 503 square). (B) Mean values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ from Arkhangelsk, Kalinin, Pechora, Perm and St.
 504 Petersburg. (C) NAOI and (D) EZCI. The dashed lines in (B), (C) and (D) indicate the
 505 long-term trends.

506 **Fig. 8.** Spatial distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ values in the precipitation at the GNIP stations in
 507 different NAO phases. The circled numbers (1–6) indicate ① Riga, ② St. Petersburg,
 508 ③ Kalinin, ④ Arkhangelsk, ⑤ Perm, and ⑥ Pechora. The average atmospheric
 509 moisture transport moisture fluxes (vectors; unit: $\text{kg}/(\text{m}^*\text{s})$) in different NAO phases
 510 are indicated: (A) 1981 (NAOI= -0.21) and (B) 1982 (NAOI= 0.43). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{W}$ values
 511 change due to different water vapor transport sources in different NAO phases.

512 Captions of the Appendix Figures

513 **Appendix Fig. 1.** The backward trajectories at Bagdarin (A) and (B), Qiqihar (C) and



514 **(D)**, Ulaanbaatar **(E)** and **(F)** and Wulumuqi **(E)** and **(F)** in different months. The bold
515 black numbers in the figure are the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values (‰, V-SMOW). The Hybrid
516 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model was used for the
517 backward tracking of air parcels at the above sites. The air mass history was calculated
518 at **500 m a.g.l.** (above ground level) over the previous 240 h. Each dot represents the
519 location of the air parcel at 12-h intervals. The model is available from the NOAA Air
520 Resources Laboratory at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>.

521 **Appendix Fig. 2.** The backward trajectories at Bagdarin **(A)** and **(B)**, Qiqihar **(C)** and
522 **(D)**, Ulaanbaatar **(E)** and **(F)** and Wulumuqi **(E)** and **(F)** in different months. The bold
523 black numbers in the figure are the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values (‰, V-SMOW). The Hybrid
524 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model was used for the
525 backward tracking of air parcels at the above sites. The air mass history was calculated
526 at **1500 m a.g.l.** (above ground level) over the previous 240 h. Each dot represents the
527 location of the air parcel at 12-h intervals. The model is available from the NOAA Air
528 Resources Laboratory at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>.

529 **Appendix Fig. 3.** The backward trajectories at Bagdarin **(A)** and **(B)**, Qiqihar **(C)** and
530 **(D)**, Ulaanbaatar **(E)** and **(F)** and Wulumuqi **(E)** and **(F)** in different months. The bold
531 black numbers in the figure are the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ values (‰, V-SMOW). The Hybrid
532 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model was used for the
533 backward tracking of air parcels at the above sites. The air mass history was calculated
534 at **2000 m a.g.l.** (above ground level) over the previous 240 h. Each dot represents the
535 location of the air parcel at 12-h intervals. The model is available from the NOAA Air



Resources Laboratory at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>.

Appendix Fig. 4. Annual variations in the Eurasian Zonal Circulation Index (EZCI, 1951–2017). The boxes represent the 25th–75th percentiles; the line through each box represents the median; the whiskers indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles; and the points above and below the whiskers indicate the 95th and 5th percentiles, respectively.

Appendix Fig. 5. Time series (1980–1983) of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at (A) Amderma, (B) Arkhangelsk, (C) Kalinin, (D) Pechora, (E) Perm, (F) Riga, and (G) St. Petersburg and time series (1980–1983) of (H) the NAOI and (I) EZCI.

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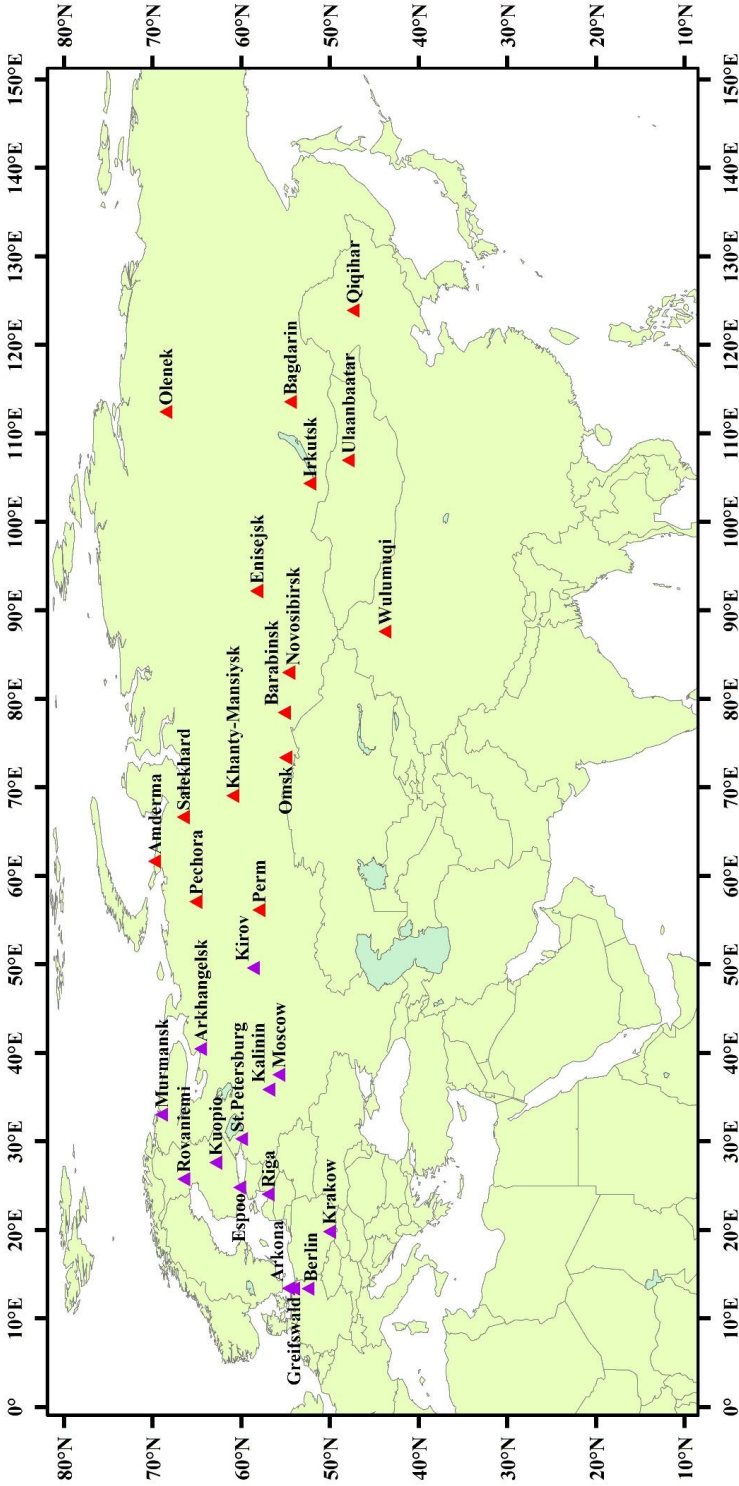
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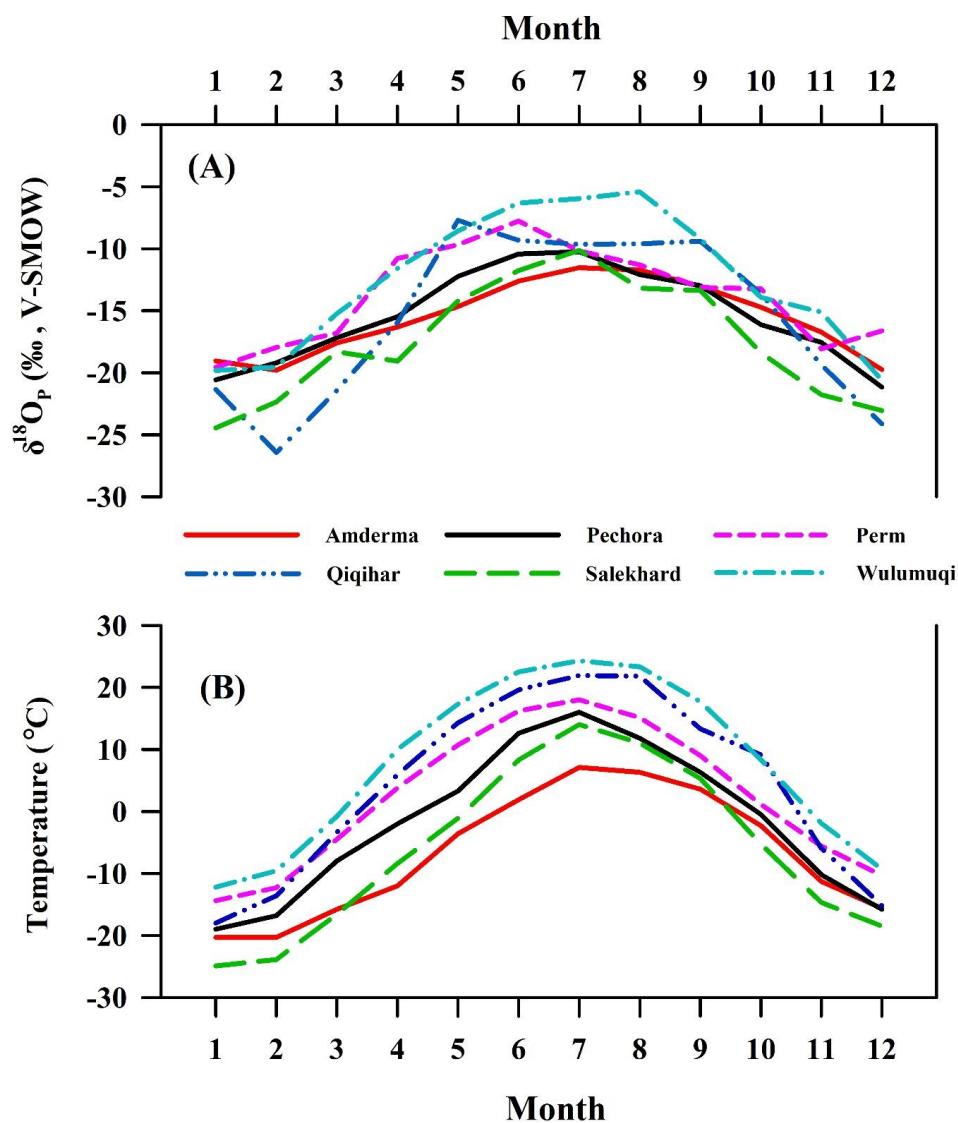


Fig. 1





742 **Fig. 2**



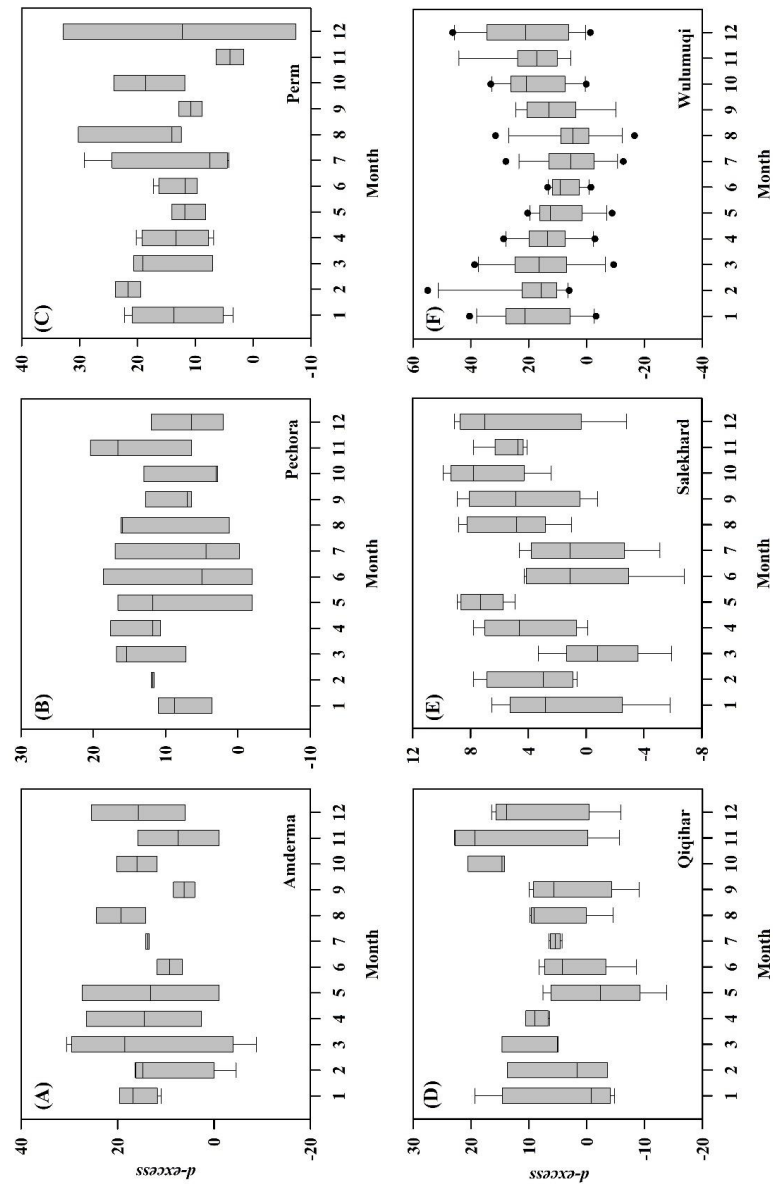
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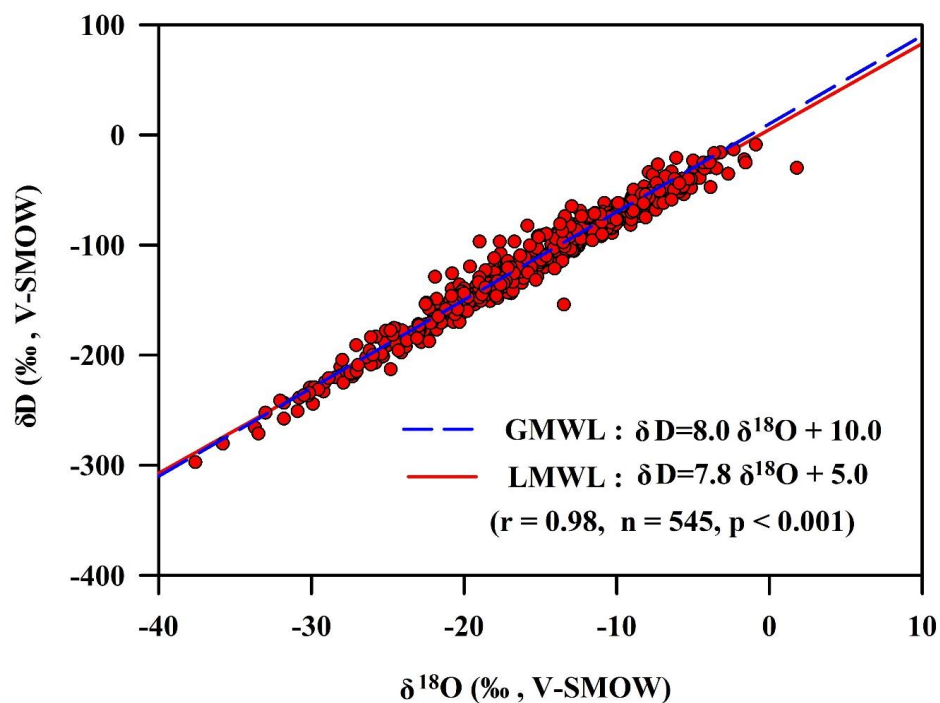
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748 **Fig. 3**



750 **Fig. 4**



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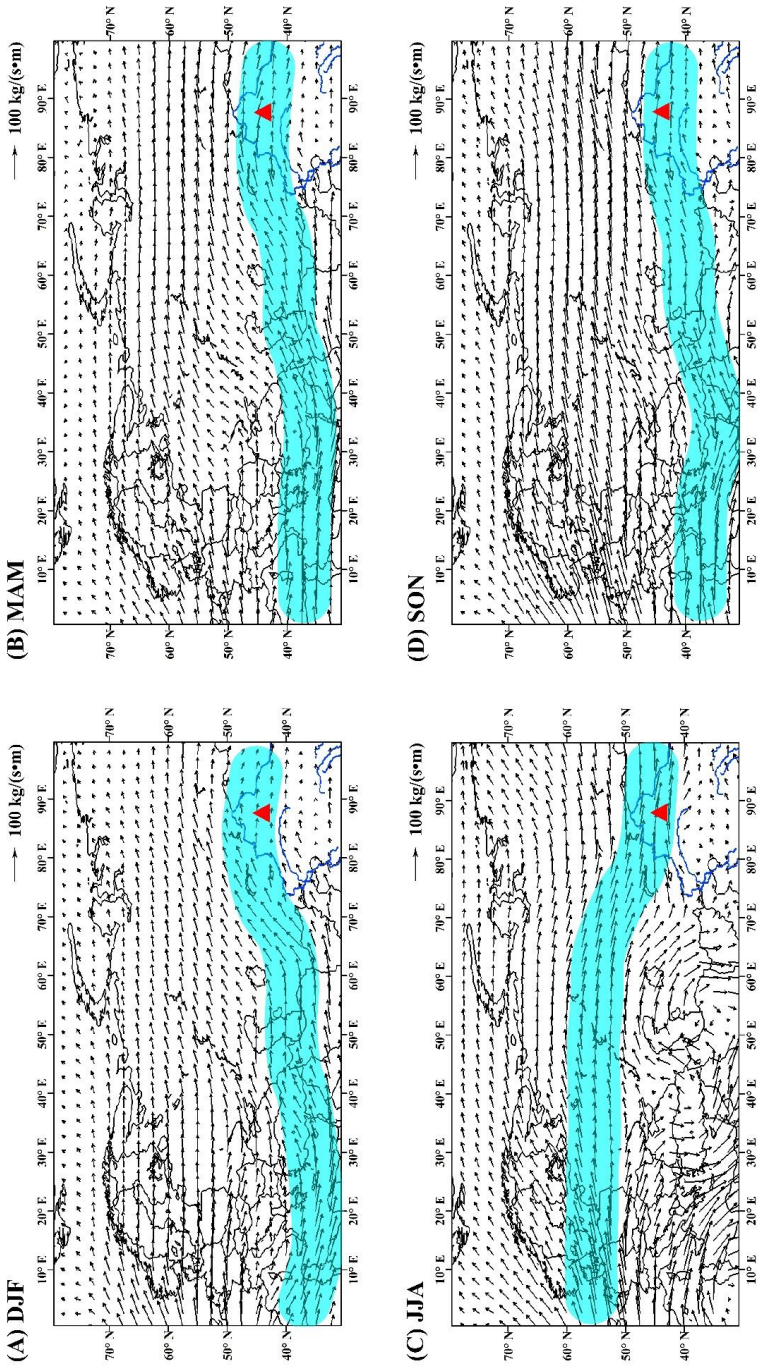
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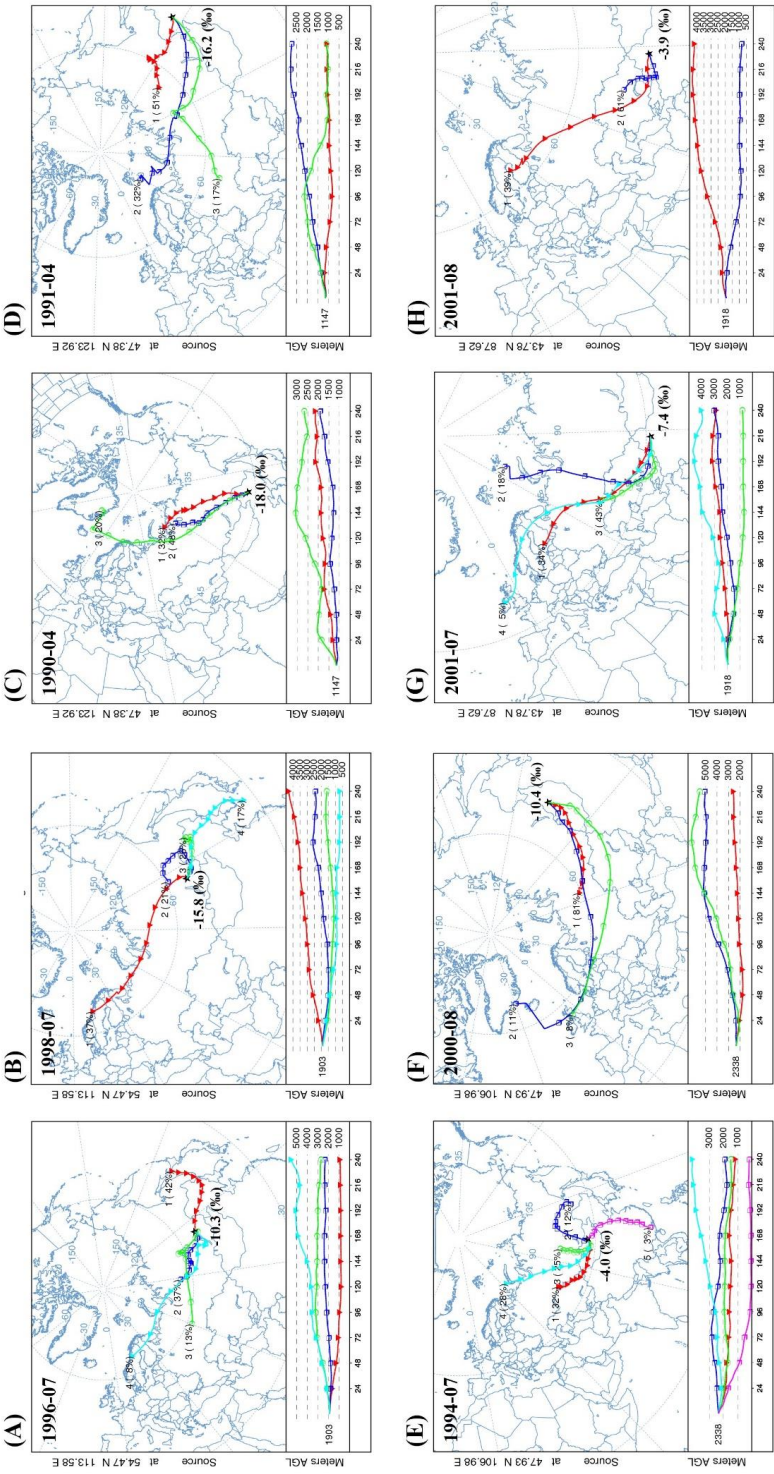


762 Fig. 5



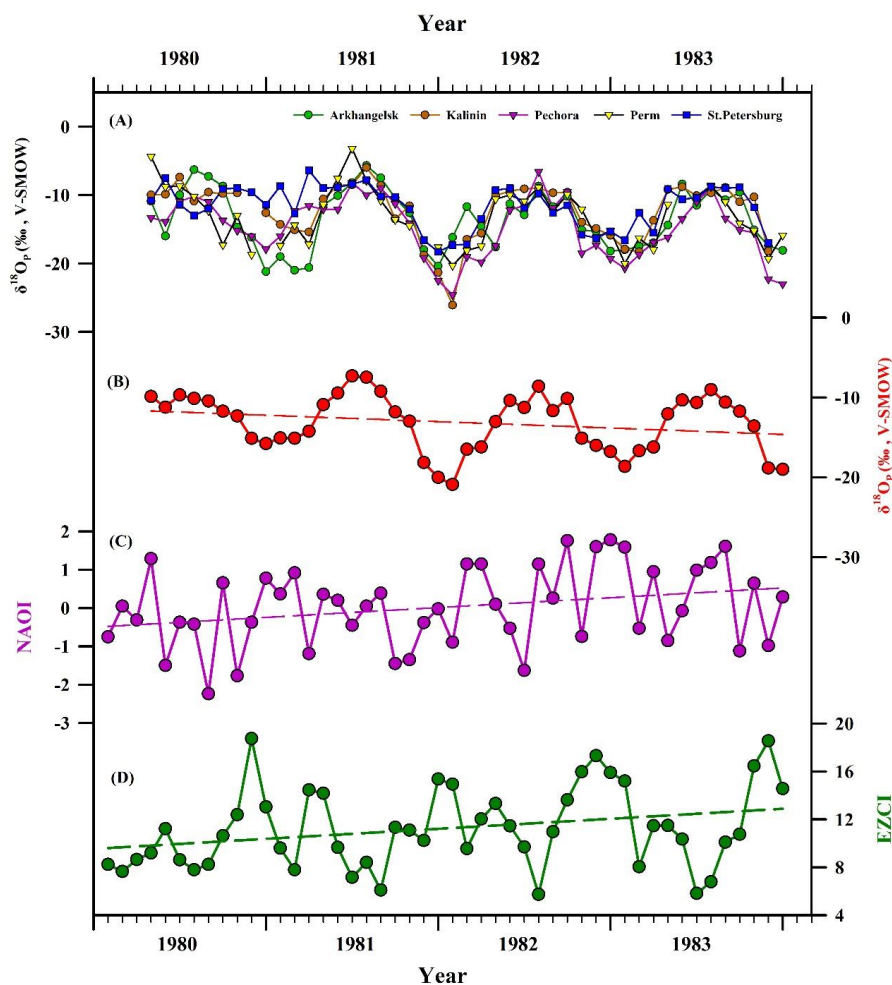


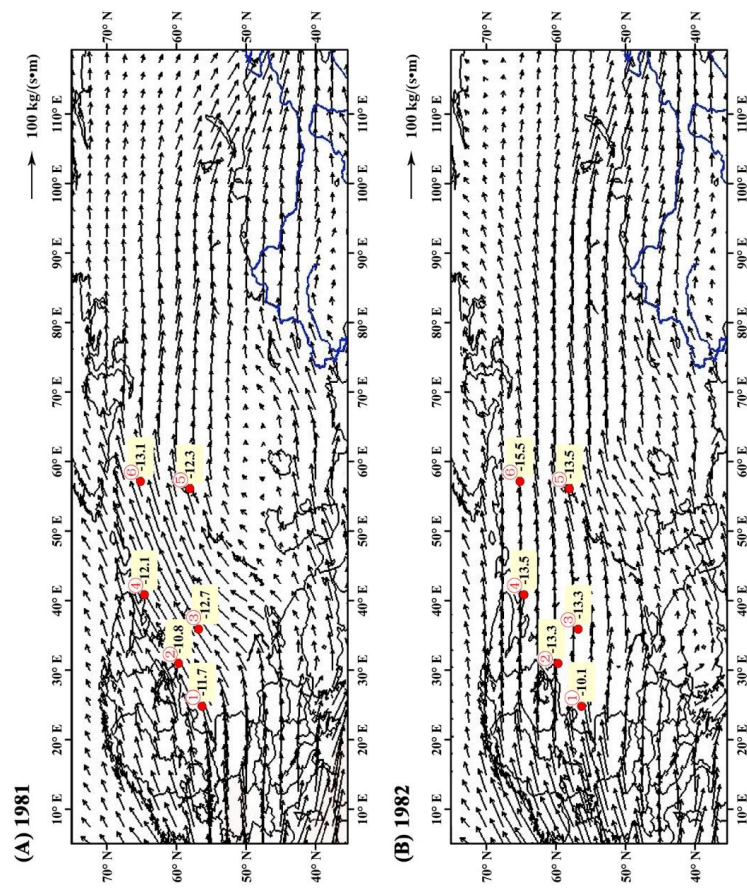
764 Fig. 6





766 **Fig. 7**





774 Fig. 8



Table 1 GNIP stations in Siberia and Central Asia considered in this study. For each station, we report the annual precipitation; annual average temperature; weighted average annual $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, δD and d -excess values in precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$, δD_w , and d -excess_(w)); latitude; longitude; and altitude, as well as the monitoring period and the number of available monthly measurements (n).

Site	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Altitude (m)	Annual precipitation (mm)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ (‰, V-SMOW)	δD_w (‰, V-SMOW)	d -excess _(w)	Annual average temperature (°C)	Monitoring year (A.D)	n
Anderma	69.77	61.68	53	443	-15.5	-110.1	14.4	-7.0	1980-1990	31
Bagdarin	54.47	113.58	903	438	-13.7	-106.6	2.7	-5.3	1996-2000	34
Barabinsk	55.33	78.37	120	371	-12.4	-96.4	2.5	1.1	1996-2000	28
Enisejsk	58.45	92.15	78	491	-13.3	-98.4	7.9	-1.5	1990	12
Irkutsk	52.27	104.35	485	445	-12.4	-97.3	2.2	0.0	1971-1990	14
Khanty- Mansiysk	60.97	69.07	40	563	-11.6	-92.5	0.4	-1.3	1996-1997	13
Novosibirsk	55.03	82.90	162	422	-14.6	-104.3	12.8	0.9	1990	12
Olenek	68.50	112.43	220	300	-18.7	-145.5	3.8	-11.8	1996-2000	36
Omsk	55.01	73.38	94	401	-13.5	-98.2	8.9	1.6	1990	8
Pechora	65.12	57.10	56	578	-15.0	-109.5	9.2	-1.8	1980-1990	36
Perm	58.01	56.18	161	616	-12.5	-92.1	13.9	2.1	1980-1991	38
Qiqihar	47.38	123.92	147	581	-10.6	-79.1	5.5	4.3	1988-1992	50
Salekhard	66.53	66.67	16	446	-16.5	-127.7	4.5	-6.2	1996-2000	58
Ulaanbaatar	47.93	106.98	1338	249	-8.5	-64.8	2.9	-0.3	1998-2001	44
Wulumuqi	43.78	87.62	918	303	-10.6	-72.2	12.5	7.5	1986-2003	131



780 **Table 2 LMWL of 15 studied GNIP sites in Siberia and Central Asia and the number of available monthly**
781 **measurements (n)**

Site	LMWL	n
Amderma	$\delta D = 7.62 \delta^{18}O + 6.86$	31
Bagdalin	$\delta D = 7.84 \delta^{18}O - 0.18$	34
Barabinsk	$\delta D = 7.43 \delta^{18}O - 6.01$	28
Enisejsk	$\delta D = 8.68 \delta^{18}O + 16.53$	12
Irkutsk	$\delta D = 8.05 \delta^{18}O + 6.78$	14
Khanty-Mansiysk	$\delta D = 7.98 \delta^{18}O - 0.02$	13
Novosibirsk	$\delta D = 8.77 \delta^{18}O + 24.1$	12
Olenek	$\delta D = 7.77 \delta^{18}O - 2.94$	36
Omsk	$\delta D = 7.61 \delta^{18}O + 1.95$	8
Pechora	$\delta D = 7.89 \delta^{18}O + 8.14$	36
Perm	$\delta D = 8.00 \delta^{18}O + 13.43$	38
Qiqihar	$\delta D = 7.59 \delta^{18}O - 0.14$	50
Salekhard	$\delta D = 7.86 \delta^{18}O + 1.21$	58
Ulaanbaatar	$\delta D = 7.82 \delta^{18}O + 1.52$	44
Wulumuqi	$\delta D = 6.98 \delta^{18}O + 0.43$	131



Table 3. Correlation coefficients between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and temperature based on monthly data (R_T)

Site	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	ALL	n
Anderma	0.32	0.49*	0.08	0.62**	0.75**	72
Bagdarin	—	0.82*	0.17	0.92**	0.90**	34
Barabinsk	0.49	0.96**	0.70	0.97**	0.96**	28
Enisejsk	—	—	—	—	0.88**	12
Khanty-Mansiysk	—	—	—	—	0.94**	13
Novosibirsk	—	—	—	—	0.88**	12
Olenek	0.69*	0.91**	0.12	0.77	0.94**	35
Pechora	0.50*	0.57**	0.55*	0.64**	0.85**	79
Perm	0.49*	0.79**	0.31	0.42	0.79**	79
Qiqihar	0.51	0.75**	0.17	0.46	0.76**	50
Salekhard	0.04	0.72**	0.54*	0.90**	0.88**	58
Ulaanbaatar	0.41	0.89*	0.10	0.93**	0.84**	44
Wulumuqi	—	0.71**	0.08	0.67**	0.86**	123

* Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.05$.

** Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.01$.

DJF: December-January-February; MAM: March-April-May; JJA: June-July-August; SON: September-October-November; All: the entire year



799 **Table 4 Correlation coefficients between the annual mean temperature, annual precipitation, annual mean**

800 **NAOI and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ (R_T , R_P , and R_N)**

Site	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Altitude (m)	R_T	R_P	R_N	Years	n
Anderma	69.77	61.68	53	0.31	-0.37	-0.64	1980-1990	5
Arkhangelsk	64.58	40.50	13	0.70	0.35	0.00	1980-1986	7
Arkona	54.68	13.43	42	-0.02	-0.62	-0.26	1998-2007	10
Berlin	52.47	13.40	48	0.33	-0.16	-0.05	1978-2012	35
Espoo	60.18	24.83	30	0.67**	0.14	0.52*	2001-2015	15
Greifswald	54.10	13.41	2	0.25	0.01	0.15	2003-2013	11
Kalinin	56.90	35.90	31	-0.03	-0.02	0.56	1881/1988	7
Kirov	58.65	49.62	164	0.50	-0.52	0.05	1980/2000	9
Krakow	50.06	19.85	205	0.43**	-0.12	0.25	1975-2016	42
Kuopio	62.89	27.63	116	0.73*	0.45	0.62*	2005-2015	11
Moscow	55.75	37.57	157	0.43	-0.38	-0.07	1970/1979	6
Murmansk	68.97	33.05	46	0.23	0.47	0.73*	1980/1990	8
Pechora	65.12	57.10	56	0.61	-0.43	-0.89*	1980-1990	6
Perm	58.01	56.18	161	-0.56	-0.02	-0.46	1980-1990	5
Qiqihar	47.38	123.92	147	-0.63	-0.47	0.50	1988-1992	5
Riga	56.97	24.07	3	-0.05	-0.10	0.06	1980-1988	8
Rovaniemi	66.50	25.76	107	0.14	0.60	0.44	2004-2014	11
Salekhard	66.53	66.67	16	0.95*	-0.21	0.51	1996-2000	5
St. Petersburg	59.97	30.30	4	0.27	-0.04	0.13	1980-1989	9
Wulumuqi	43.78	87.62	918	-0.29	0.27	-0.36	1986-2003	12

801 * Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.05$.

802 ** Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.01$.



Table 5 Correlation coefficients between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the rainfall amount based on monthly data (R_p)

Site	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	ALL	n ⁸⁰⁴
Amderma	0.13	-0.30	-0.16	-0.05	-0.01	72
Bagdarin	—	0.42	-0.33	0.38	0.48**	34
Barabinsk	-0.20	0.23	0.02	0.41	0.35	28
Enisejsk	—	—	—	—	0.59*	12
Khanty-Mansiysk	—	—	—	—	0.88**	13
Novosibirsk	—	—	—	—	0.40	12
Olenek	-0.19	0.54	0.02	0.14	0.60**	36
Pechora	-0.21	0.13	-0.13	-0.37	0.19	79
Perm	-0.09	-0.15	-0.35	0.55*	0.15	79
Qiqihar	-0.25	0.16	-0.11	0.48	0.47**	50
Salekhard	-0.32	-0.11	-0.29	0.05	0.30*	58
Ulaanbaatar	0.49	0.46	-0.21	0.70*	0.63**	25
Wulumuqi	-0.02	0.03	-0.30	0.10	0.34**	123

* Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.05$.

** Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.01$.

DJF: December-January-February; MAM: March-April-May; JJA: June-July-August; SON: September-October-November; All: the entire year



Table 6 Correlation coefficients between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and the EZCI based on monthly data (R_z)

Site	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	ALL	n
Amderna	0.09	-0.55*	0.27	-0.43	-0.37**	74
Bagdarin	—	0.07	0.19	-0.04	-0.50**	34
Barabinsk	0.74*	-0.33	-0.41	0.87*	-0.50**	28
Enisejsk	—	—	—	—	-0.53	12
Khanty-Mansiysk	—	—	—	—	-0.41	13
Novosibirsk	—	—	—	—	-0.56	12
Olenek	0.20	-0.46	-0.13	-0.74	-0.70**	36
Pechora	-0.52*	-0.03	-0.55*	-0.41	-0.59**	79
Perm	0.18	-0.43	0.15	-0.40	-0.37**	79
Qiqihar	0.17	-0.13	-0.10	-0.62*	-0.44**	50
Salekhard	0.11	-0.36	-0.45	-0.34	-0.54**	58
Ulaanbaatar	-0.42	0.39	0.12	0.36	-0.19	26
Wulumuqi	0.06	0.11	0.12	-0.42*	-0.51**	131

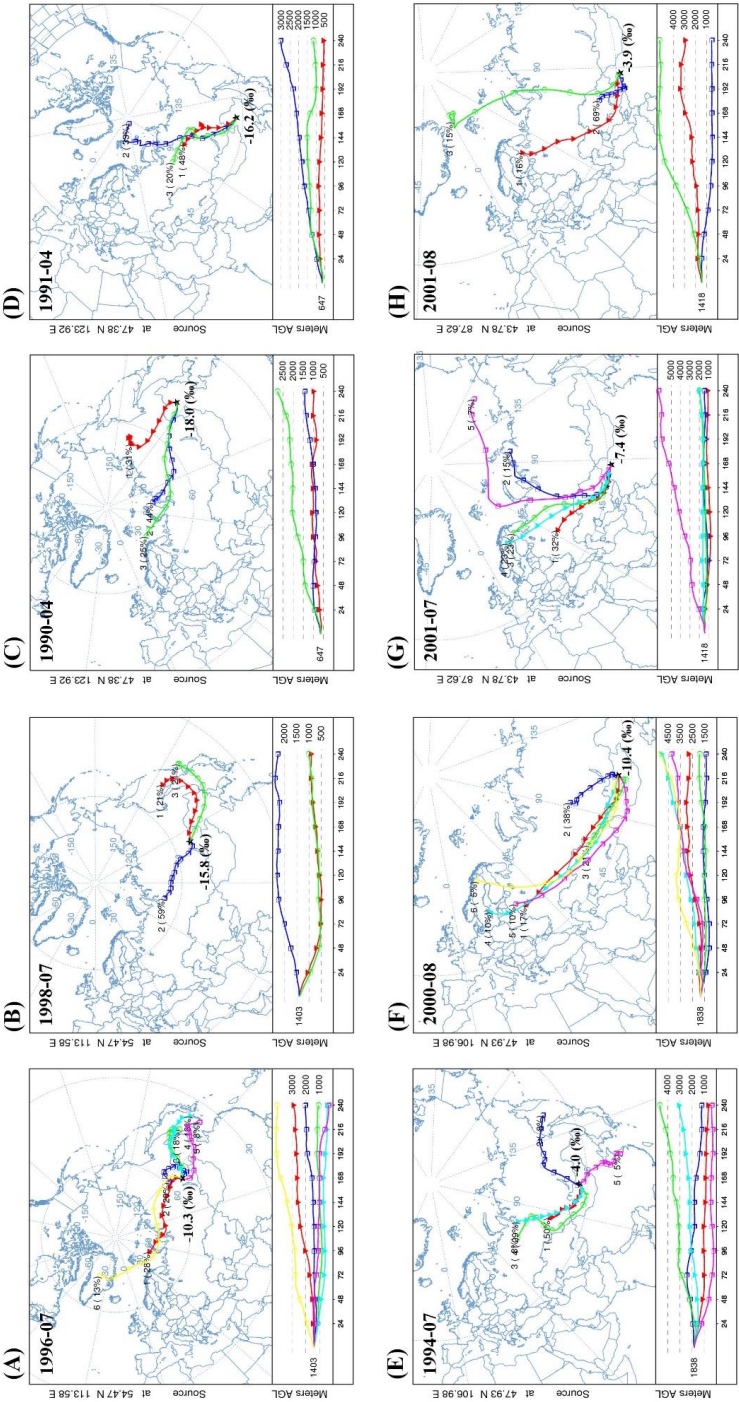
* Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.05$.

** Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.01$.

DJF: December-January-February; MAM: March-April-May; JJA: June-July-August; SON: September-October-November; All: the entire year.

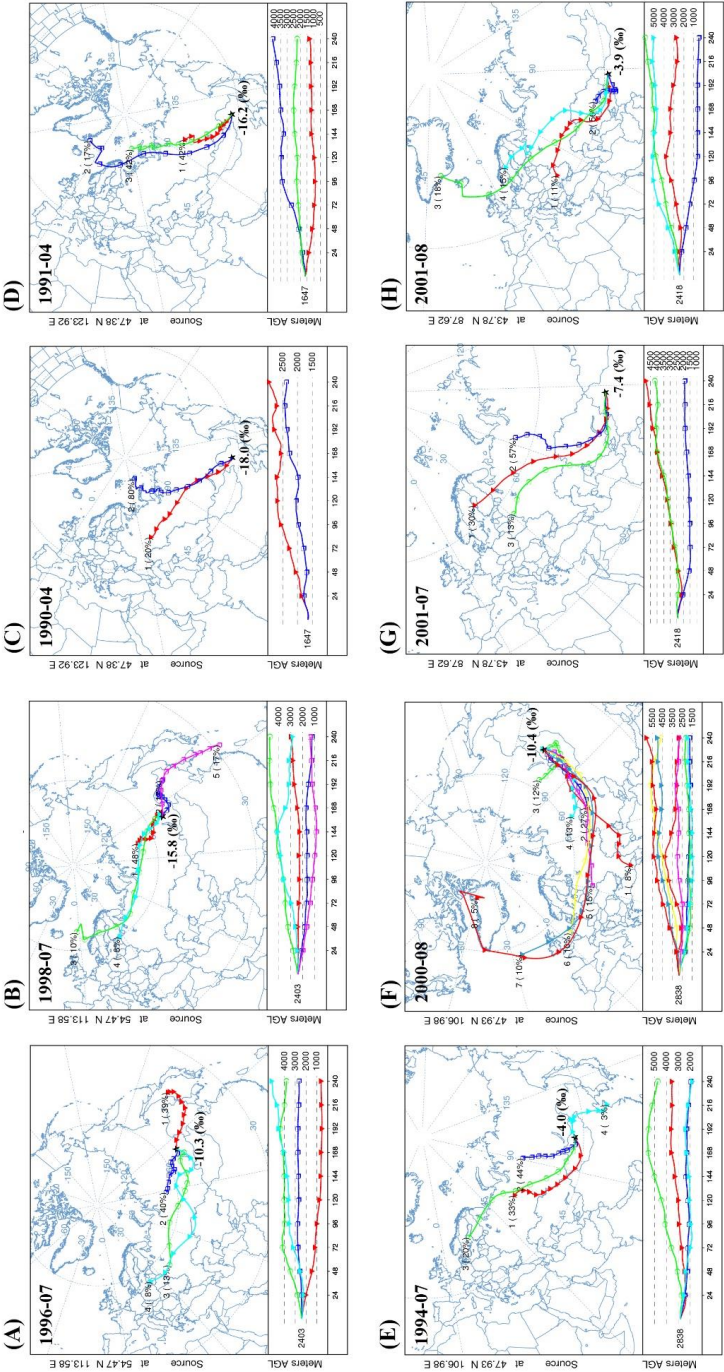


828 Appendix Fig. 1



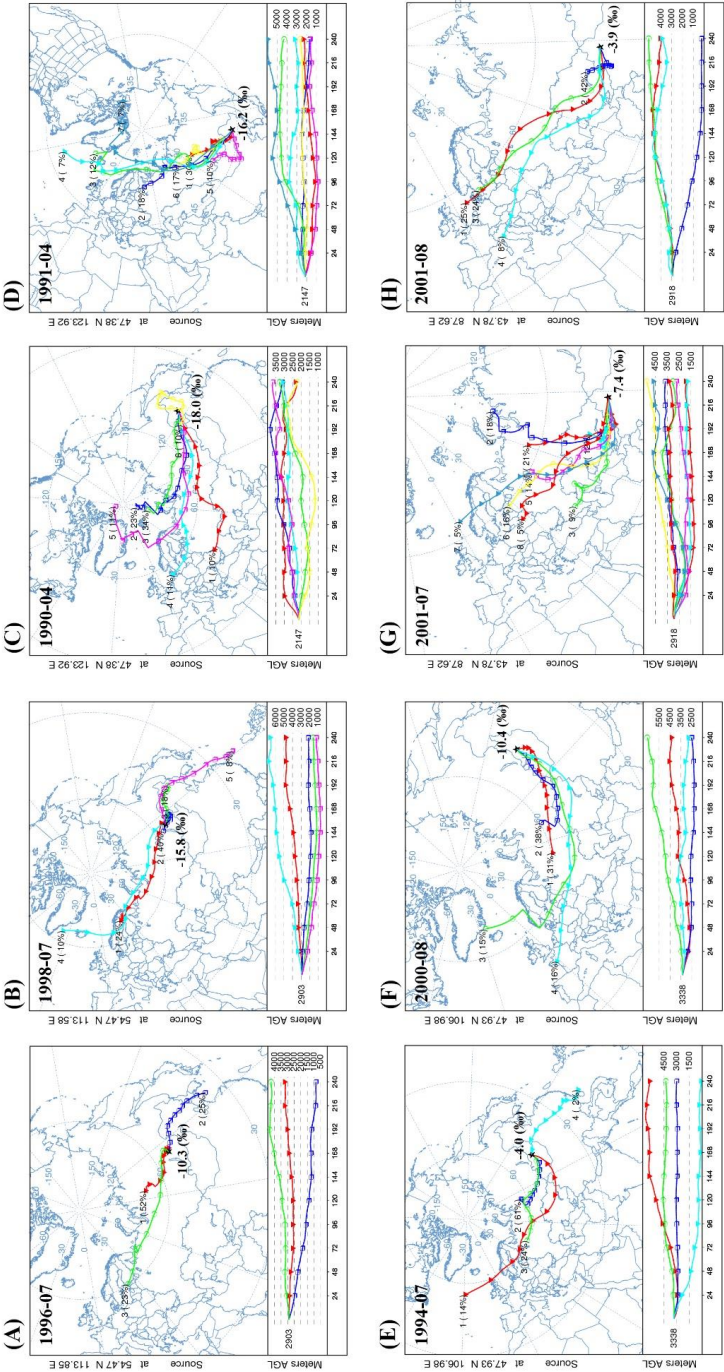


834 Appendix Fig. 2



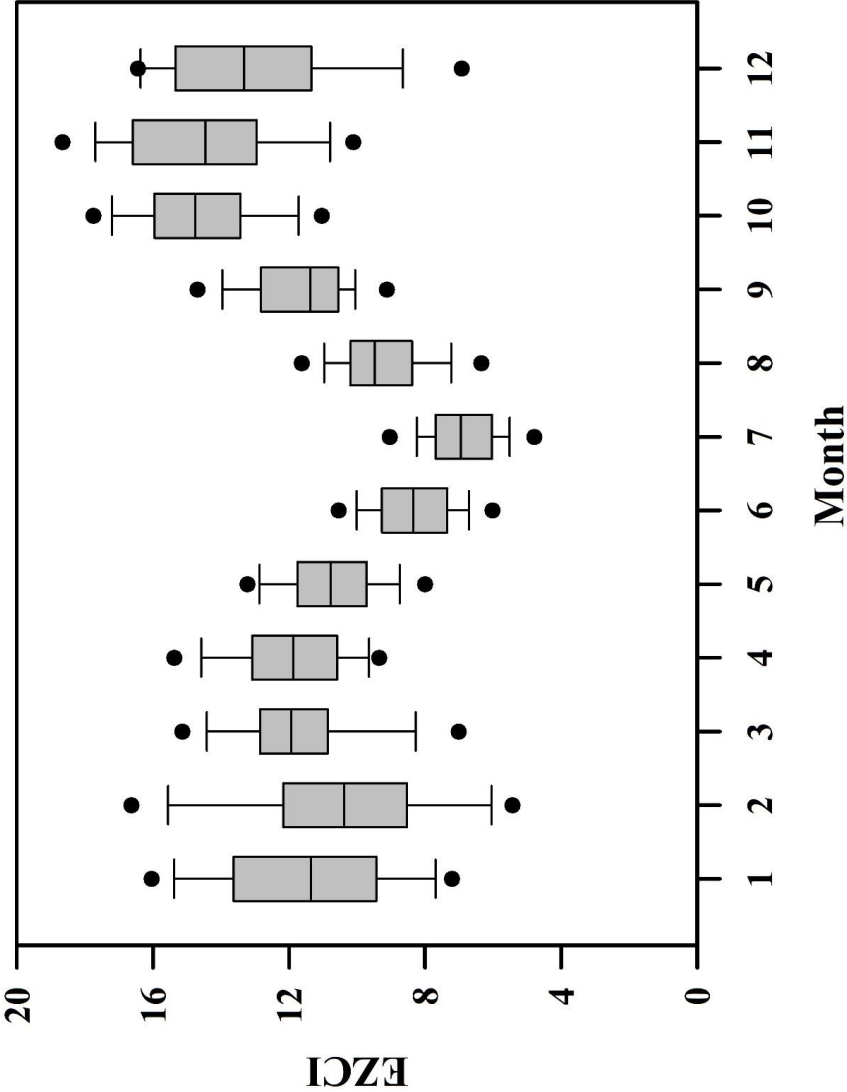


840 Appendix Fig. 3



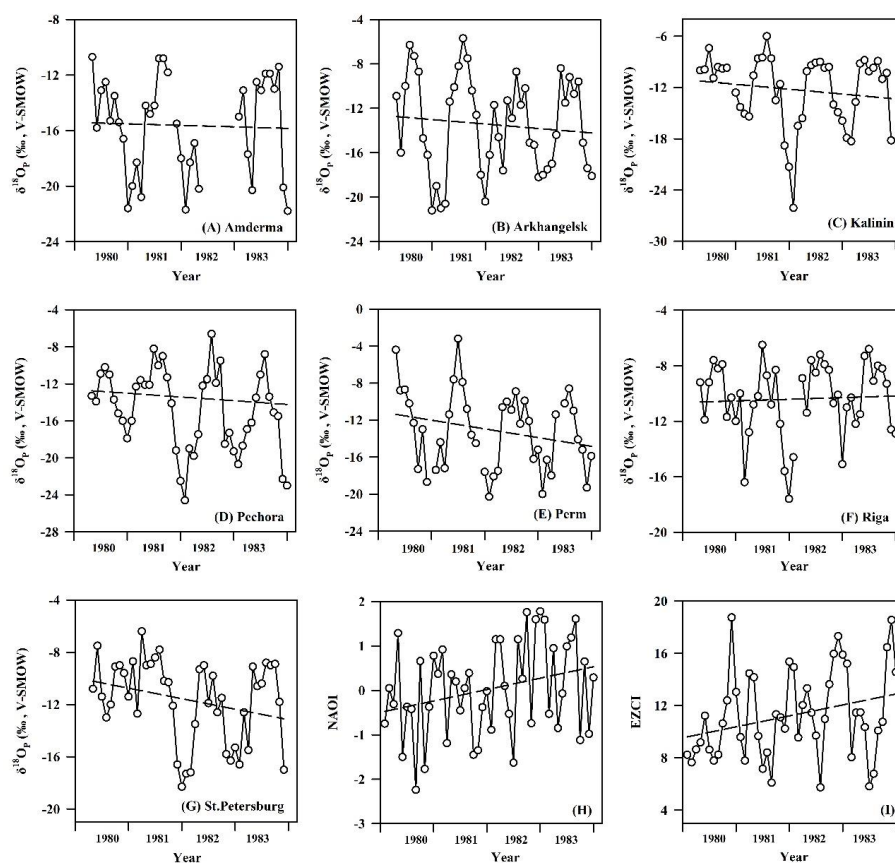


846 Appendix Fig. 4





848 **Appendix Fig. 5**



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862 **Appendix Table 1 Correlation coefficients between the temperature and**
 863 **rainfall amount based on monthly data (R_{TP})**

Site	R_{TP}	n
Amderma	0.20*	122
Bagdarin	0.67**	55
Barabinsk	0.34**	60
Enisejsk	0.47**	128
Khanty-Mansiysk	0.49**	60
Novosibirsk	0.67*	12
Olenek	0.62**	59
Pechora	0.38**	129
Perm	0.30**	209
Qiqihar	0.66**	52
Salekhard	0.58**	191
Ulaanbaatar	0.59**	114
Wulumuqi	0.41**	152

864 * Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.05$.

865 ** Denotes a statistically significant relationship at $p < 0.01$.

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